The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland :: ::

Proceedings of the Meetings held in Nineteen Hundred and Nineteen at Trenton and Philadelphia

NUMBER 17

1919

PRICE, ONE DOLLAR

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TRENTON MEETING

May 9–10, 1919

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON, NEW JERSEY

Friday Afternoon, May 9, 1919, at 5 P. M., MEETING OF THE COUNCIL OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Friday, 6 P. M., SUBSCRIPTION DINNER.

Friday, 8 P. M., ADDRESS OF WELCOME, by Principal J. J. Savitz, New Jersey State Normal School, Trenton.

RESPONSE by Professor Livingston Rowe Schuyler, College of the City of New York, President of the Association.

THE HISTORY TEACHER AND THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

PROFESSOR JOHN SPENCER BASSETT
SMITH COLLEGE, NORTHAMPTON, MASS.

During the past year the proposition for a League of Nations has changed from an academic into a practical question. The time has come for the civilized nations to decide whether they will have a league to establish permanent peace or not. Incidentally, they must decide also whether, in the future, their common interests, every year becoming stronger, shall be conducted under the haphazard combinations of individual nations or conducted under the control of a common organization. A year ago practical men dismissed the suggestion of a league as the work of the idealist. They said it was a good thing but it could not be adopted. They expressed reasonable compassion for the idealist. Today the league of nations has been brought into the realm of international negotiations. It has been adopted by the most representative and least insincere national congress that has ever assembled. It is now a plain question to which the people of the United States, as well as the people of other nations, must say "yea" or "nay." It has become as practical as taxation, or the control of the railroads. It fills newspaper

columns, arouses personal animosities, and determines the political happiness of office-seekers. It is a thoroughly American question.

The idealist, however, cannot give up his interest in the suggestion. He fathered it. It is a cub of his loins now thrown into the bear-pit of politics. If he stands gasping as the youngling fights for existence, who should wonder? In fact, practical as the question is, it still has its ideality. When the politicians have decided as practical men that we shall have a league of nations, there will remain much for the idealist to do. Or if they should decide to have no league of nations there would be much more work for the idealist; for in that event his plain duty would be to take up again the work of enlightenment until in some future day he could make all men see as he sees.

When General Pershing offered the army of the United States to Marshall Foch in the critical days of March, 1918, he offered it in the following words:

"I come to say to you that the American people would hold it a great honor for our troops were they engaged in the present battle. I ask it of you in my name and in that of the American people. There is at this moment no other question than that of fighting. Infantry, artillery, aviation—all that we have are yours to dispose of as you will. Others are coming which are as numerous as will be necessary. I have come to say to you that the American people would be proud to be engaged in the greatest battle in history."

Other nations were staking their all on the outcome of a battle whose issue was in doubt. General Pershing asked that the United States be allowed to do the same thing. So far as we know he did not consider the constitutionality of the step he took nor ask if he was violating American tradition. As a matter of fact, it would be hard to find a clause in the constitution authorizing a general commanding to place his army at the disposal of a foreign commander; and to place it under a European commander was perhaps just the thing Jefferson had in mind when he spoke of "foreign entanglements." But Pershing made the offer and no evil consequences resulted.

The simplicity of General Pershing's language, and the lack of a word that was boastful, mark this utterance as one that we shall be glad to remember for many years. It is in what we like to believe is the American spirit. When the offer was made it

electrified Europe. We have done many things in the past to make Europe respect our wealth and cleverness, but we have never done anything else to make it love us to the same extent. "All that we have are yours"; that was a very admirable sentence, or a very foolish one.

It is American to give and take nothing in return. What plague has afflicted the rest of the world that we did not send physicians and nurses? What famine has descended that we did not send food? There has always been enough to send without injury to those who sent it. We are no poorer because we have helped the poor. The same will probably be true if we give the political aid that is now asked of us. We cannot decrease our liberty by giving liberty to others. "Fear God and take your part"—that is a good battle order. Americans like it, because it means: Be right and take a chance on it. It is a good motto in the political world, too. If the league of nations is right, we can afford to take a chance on it. That is the word of the idealist in the present situation.

Some people seem to think that the United States are necessary to the league of nations and for that reason they want concessions before entering the league. One demand is that the Monroe Doctrine shall be left to the sole control of the United States. Let us look at this demand closely. We have a Monroe Doctrine in order that justice may be done to certain American states south of us. If justice be done to them we shall have no reason to believe our own interests impaired. Now if the protection we have given is merged into the world protection that the league of nation is founded to give, and if the league exercises it as fairly and efficiently as we have exercised it, we should be satisfied with the arrangement. President Monroe did not assume the protection of the South American states because he wished to do so but because he thought our interests demanded it. If a league of nations had existed in 1823 he would perhaps have passed the responsibility over to it. Can we trust the league to decide fairly the case which in principle would involve the Monroe Doctrine? Would the league be as fair to South America as we should be? Under it the judges sitting in such a case would perhaps be of the type of men who ordinarily sit on arbitration tribunals, and such judges have usually given satisfactory decisions. They are as able and as fair as judges appointed in our own courts. If the matters now covered by the

Monroe Doctrine are settled fairly under the league we should be satisfied; for we cannot hope to do more if we settle them ourselves.

Let us suppose a league in operation and Germany and Mexico in a quarrel over the payment of debts by Mexico. Would an ordinarily fair and intelligent tribunal give Germany the right to occupy Mexico? If Germany in defiance of a decision of the league tried to fix her hold on Mexico she would become an outlaw to the other nations. The United States with consent of the league would send an army to oust her, and in so doing they would have the support of all the other states. Under the old system they would have to oust her alone, and in doing so they would have to be careful lest they arouse the suspicions of some other nations than Germany who had interests in Mexico. The league of nations, therefore, would strengthen, and not lessen, our influence with Mexico, provided, of course it was not our intention to exploit Mexico for selfish ends. If the sole object of the Monroe Doctrine is to protect our southern neighbors from aggression how can it be less righteously maintained by a just league than by a just United States?

One of the things that strike the idealist as singular is that at present the idea of the league of nations, American in origin, is more popular in Europe than in the United States. Perhaps it is becouse the Americans have suffered so little and the Europeans have suffered so much. For if we had been through the woe of France, and if we saw our ancient alliance gone, as the Franco-Russian alliance is gone, we should think twice before we gave up the opportunity to join a league to enforce permanent peace. The people of the United States think a great deal of France. They cannot mean to leave her to meet unassisted the vengeance of the Teuton.

Some people seem to think it would be desirable to have a league that would restrain other states without restraining the United States. No state would be restrained by the league from doing right. If the United States wished to do wrong they would be restrained. If Great Britain wished to do wrong she would have to submit to the same tribunal as the smallest state, and it would be for the first time in history that proud Britain obeyed an order she did not write. If she did not submit she would be forced to submit. Alone Germany was the strongest military nation in the world in 1914, but she could not stand against the

other nations, not even with the aid of her allies. If Great Britain plays a selfish hand in the league, the other states will know it and protest. If she defies the orders of the league she will become an outlaw to other nations, she will have all the navies of the world against her, and she will have all the non-British markets closed against her. As a nation defying the league she would, through her situation, be the most vulnerable of the great powers of the world. Perhaps the United States could defy the judgment of the league of nations with less risk of punishment than any other nation. But with the example of Germany still fresh in memory it is not likely that any state would lightly defy the league.

It has been decided that the right of withdrawal shall be conceded to the states in the league. That is regretable. There will be talk enough of secession in the first years of the league's existence, whether the concession is made in the covenant or not. But to grant the right explicitly is to encourage states to threaten to withdraw when they feel injured and thereby promote dissatisfaction. It might well lead to dissolution at some crisis when a little patience would obviate hardships.

The problem before us this evening involves the relation of the history teacher to the league of nations. It seems to assume the adoption of the league in keeping with the plan that has been announced. Such an adoption is not so promising that it can be assumed as a certainty; but it appears so probable that it is easier to discuss our problem from that standpoint than from the other. And whether the present plan is adopted or not, makes little difference in the attitude of the teacher of history, provided he is to be concerned with the league at all. For if it is not adopted, and he continues to be interested in it, he must take it up, in my view, in the same way as if it is adopted, that is, in reference to the permanent things that are in the idea. If we begin a new state of history under a league we must see that our students know the history of the league's development and its progress up to the present. If we are not to have the league we must, if we take notice of it at all, study it in regard to its broad ideals and these are not to be found in any other way so well as in the study of its development.

I do not need to discuss the position of the history teacher as a propagandist, for we are probably agreed that the historian has no higher task than to master the facts of the past, present them

in a logical and balanced manner, and leave the result to the mind that sees them. He must be just to the realities; and this he can never be unless he eschews the attitude of the propagandist. He can be a great teacher of truth by exhibiting truth impersonally. But it is truth that must make the plea and not the teacher. And he must not take advantage of the immature mind to overstate truth; first, because the immature mind is not as immature as most of us think, and second, because it will soon become as mature as the teacher's and then woe to the truth that has been twisted in the telling.

It is well to remember that the true object for which we study history is that we may become historically minded. We wish to know history that we may have the capacity of thinking historically. There is no value in a notion long held by well meaning people that history repeats itself in such a way that if you know how it behaved once you will know how it will behave again. History does not repeat itself in such a way as to enable us to establish a formula by which it will be known what will be done in the present or future. I once took a child to a physician, who examined the patient, satisfied himself as to the nature of the disease, and then turned to a card catalogue in which he found the formula for the treatment of the disease. It was a simple process and the child got well. But history does not enable you to solve social problems in that way. The physician was dealing with a series of phenomena which act in a narrow circle and according to well known laws. To obtain their formula was comparatively easy. In the things which make the process we call historical we have not yet discovered the precise relations of the phenomena, and there is no reason to believe we ever shall discover them. No formula that we can make is worth implicit trust.

But the historical student gains a great deal from the past that enables him to understand and serve the present. From observing phenomena in the past the mind comprehends the behavior of social phenomena. Its intuitions are drawn out until it gets the feel of that behavior. And thus in the course of time the mind comes to think historically. I do not know how it does it; but I do not think that it settles its problems by formulas. I do not think it knows how it settles them. To me it seems sufficient to say it thinks its solutions.

The history teacher's task is to lay the foundations for think-

ing historically. He has got to do a number of things that are difficult to do, after he has done the first thing of all, which is to think historically himself. He has got to form in the student the habits of accurate and persistent observation of phenomena. Transmitted into school-room terms that means the acquisition of information. He must, also, enable the student to keep the specimens under observation clear from things that have no relation to them or that are noxious to them. In other words, he must keep down the habit of bringing in unrelated factors to the problem under consideration, and he must see that the student does not mix prejudice or sentiments with his study of facts in such a way that the facts are injured. Finally, he must be taught to observe the way in which the phenomena act upon one another, which in our everyday language we call the making of judgments.

If you will allow me to pursue the illustration a little further I shall observe that the student begins this process with simple problems, selected in accordance with a keen acquaintance with the mind of the untrained person. Since prejudice is one of the most deleterious things that can be brought into the process, the problem set before the young student ought to be one in which there is little room for prejudice. The good teacher will know how to adjust the teaching to the taught. He will know that a problem to be studied should not be taken in its complex forms by students who are not trained to the point of grasping complexity. He will know how to present fundamentals in their salient points. He will be a wise man if he can train down his own grasp of the problem to the point at which it does not overstate the case for the untrained mind.

The league of nation problem is the largest problem offered to the average citizens for assimilation that has been offered in many centuries. Granted that it is adopted it must be understood by the citizens of the several states in the league, or it will not be operated successfully. It has come suddenly on the world as the necessary consequence of a calamity which must never be allowed to recur, and the practical people who have to determine the course of public policy have had little opportunity to become acquainted with its nature. There is no portion of the world's teachers who may not well strive to make up this deficiency in the shortest possible time. It is a subject which we must discuss, not only in its adoption, but continuously in its operation, until we comprehend it as well as we comprehend our own long

established forms of government. If the United States find themselves in a league of nations, we shall be discredited if it happens that the world has to look to some other nation than ours for that intelligent and self-controlled leadership without which a world league cannot prosper. Editors of newspapers, clergymen, writers, and lecturers must do what they can to enlighten the adults. It falls upon the teachers to enlighten the youth—who are the coming citizens. It is essentially the task of the teacher of history to deal with the subject, and it is a subject that demands historical mindedness.

The league of nations will exist, whether the United States joins it or not. Although it is to a large extent the child of President Wilson's fancy, it is no longer dependent upon American tutelage. If our senate should refuse to ratify, as it may do within the exercise of its judgment, we should be in the position of Rhode Island and North Carolina from the time the federal constitution was adopted by the approval of more than nine states to the time they became alarmed at the prospect of being left out of the union, and changed their minds as to adoption. It is probable that the people of this country would soon experience the same change of opinion that these states experienced, if the opponents of the league were to prevail in the first instance.

The treaty of peace that has just been submitted to the conquered nations is a hard peace and a just peace as expressed. It is just if the league of nations does the part that may be expected of it. Germany is stripped of vast defensive powers, which she has used in the past to the disadvantage of the rest of the world. The conquerors have not abated their own military strength, and in view of the necessities of the case that course is justifiable. But the time must come when the German people will expect that the rest of the world will give up its ability to threaten or allow them, the German people, the right to threaten in return. It is the league of nations that must have the task of equalizing confidence against confidence and diminishing distrust against distrust. Its authority must be sufficient for this task, its statesmanship must be broad enough, and the people of the constituent states must be informed of all sides of the problem. It is to the people that we must look to know whether or not the adjustments of the future shall be just or selfish.

The knitting together of the states in the American union was

a slow process after the bond of union was adopted in 1788. The purpose and conditions of the union were not the same as the purposes and conditions of the league of nations, and it would be unwise to carry the parallel between them to an extreme point. But in each there is a knitting process, and the historically minded person will find some lessons in the one that will be valuable in observing the other. The things that made our union grow stronger after it was established as an experiment on a plan that went further, perhaps, beyond the intellectual grasp of the people than the present convenant goes beyond the grasp of the people of today were three at least: The strength of the federal authority, the growing power of interstate economic and social relations, and the cultivation of national glorification.

As to how the authority vested in the league would work to hold the league together, the opinion of one man is as good as another. It would depend to some extent on the other factors and to some extent on the events which may happen in the course of experience. Social and economic inter-relations constitute a more stable factor. They are already strong; under the operation of a league they should become stronger. On the other hand they will have to contend against barriers erected by the principle of separate nationality, and at this time it is difficult to form an idea of the result of the dispute.

It is in regard to the third factor that one finds the most interesting series of reflections. As the league of nations becomes the inheritor of the World War the constitution of the United States was the inheritor of the American Revolution. The children of 1770 to 1789 were nourished on the glories of Bunker Hill and Yorktown. They were taught to honor revolutionary soldiers and to hate the opponents of the revolution. When they became the men who controlled the union they were its devout worshippers. Twenty-three years after 1789 they hurled defiance at Great Britain, despite the alarms of their timid elders, who, remembering the difficulty with which the peace of 1783 had been won, thought that it was better to endure insult for a time longer than to stake on another war the independence once so hardly won. The boys of '76 came into control of the federal government in the war of 1812 and from that time the American eagle perched more securely on the national capitol. On fourths of July it sang stridently, as eagles of freedom will ever sing,

but its position was secure in the hopes and reverence of the American people.

I do not know what idea the future will find in the struggle through which we are now passing corresponding in our own progress from loose to close union to the binding influence of our worship of the revolution. Possibly the aversion to war and the determination to maintain peace may serve. But whatever it is, it will be an ideal that depends more upon reasoning than the spread-eagle glorification of our ancestors. The world will not tolerate the sentimentality today that it tolerated a century ago. Those who develop it must work patiently and persistently upon the minds of the young. If the league of nations can live thirty years on the horrors of the war just ending, it will be the fault of the teachers if it fails afterwards.

What, then, is the duty of the teacher specifically? How shall he approach the task thrust on him? It is ever his business to adjust the minds of the pupils to the demands the world makes on men of intellect. If this new thing has come into the world, and if he cannot fail to meet it, how must he begin? One man cannot answer satisfactorily, a group of men cannot foresee in the present all that the answer should be. But we can begin to consider and suggest and perhaps make experiments. The future will bring experience and experience will correct mistakes. It is with the greatest reluctance that I venture to suggest some modifications that seem to be necessary in order to enable the history teacher to meet the demand that is laid upon him. They seem very obvious to me. Others will probably seem as obvious to those who hear me.

1. The history of fedeated govenment should be studied. It is evident from the discussions of the proposition to have a league of nations that many people do not know what the nature of a league is. Persons who ought to know better have talked as though they thought the proposed league would be something aside from and antagonistic to the United States. They do not seem to realize the tremendous influence we should have in it, if formed. It seems that this could not be if they knew the histories of leagues until they could think leagues.

2. Provision should be made in the teaching of the history of other states to bring out the good points in those states. The instinctive antagonism toward the unknown should be broken down, so far as it can be broken down by presenting the history

and present culture of other states in the light in which the inhabitants of those states themselves see them. Conscious efforts should be made to break down race and religious distrust as between nations by recognizing the historical service of every racial element. It would be a happy event if some writer appeared who could present the efforts of all churches as contributions to the civilization of their respective countries, and present them in such a way as to leave no sectarian sting. Religious differences have been a powerful agent in preventing different peoples from understanding each other.

3. Recent American history should be taught more fully. The problems that come up with the citizen are related to the recent phases of our history more closely than the problems we have been studying to the neglect of our latest history. I do not forget the perils of dealing with matters that have relation with present politics; but the perils do not exist in all schools and a tactful teacher can overcome them in most instances. Especially we should teach our economic international dependence, our recent diplomatic history, and the progress of international relations.

4. The teacher should try to develop independent political thinking. He can not do it safely by preaching; but he can accomplish much by presenting topics in a studiously impartial way, creating a respect for both sides of the question in the mind of the student. If he runs away from all questions that have a suggestion of controversy in them, he will not have an opportunity to do this kind of teaching.

5. It is going to become necessary to teach more fully the recent phases of European history. The historical background of the World War is the point of departure for the political relations of the league of nations. The world must know what the league is going to be called upon to determine. To enable the peace delegates to understand how to negotiate peace it was necessary to have the assistance of a large number of historical experts. The information these gentlemen collected should be known of all men who would understand how to make laws for the future of the league. For example, Balkan problems are going to come up freely in the future. They will have to be settled by public opinion. It will be necessary for the people of the United States to know what these problems are in order that they may be able

to say what shall be done about them. The issues are going to be too serious to have public opinion stumbling along in regard to them, misled by the party leaders. Every international problem that has come up at the present conference will have its counterpart, in general, its continuation in the future politics of the league. These problems are fundamentally historical problems. Who is going to see that they are understood, if not we who teach history?

6. What effect will this have on the arrangement of history courses? That is a question of detail which cannot be answered off-hand. Experience and the strength of opposing views will enter into the answer. Will it mean a shortening of the amount of time given to the previous periods of history? I do not know. But is seems clear that much that we have been considering of first importance takes a secondary place in comparison with these recent phases. How much, for example, is the history of the reformation worth in comparison with the history of the disintegration of Turkey in Europe? Shall we not have to distribute anew the emphasis in our presentation of general history? The question is asked in full knowledge of the difficulty of answering. There is a tendency in general affairs today to say that all things must begin anew, but experience will probably show that general affairs will go on in the old way with an unconscious and practical adjustment to make them meet the emergency. With regard to our particular problem, however, the question is different. The future need of knowledge of historical information is tied up with the information needed to direct the league of nations. It is especially imperative that the history teacher shall begin anew.

7. The last point is presented with some hesitation, lest the spirit in which it is made shall be misunderstood. It is the suggestion that history written for schools, and for the average reader, as well, should recover something of the warmth that was lost in passing into the hands of what I shall venture to call the white-light-of-truth school. It was the task of that school to attack the filo-pietistics and the moralists, and the task has been done well. Probably we are in no danger of going back to the old errors. If so, may it not be desirable to allow the writers of books that deal with our particular problem to start with the purpose of creating an atmosphere in sympathy with the world relations that are coming up, but demanding that they shall give

us a story that commands the respect of the lovers of truth? If for the specific object we have in view we make this concession to purposeful history we shall make easier the task of the teacher and student and hasten the spread of enlightenment.

It is not possible for me to close these observations without alluding to the position in which national history is left by this shifting of emphasis. If the people of the earth are to carry world problems and world history in their minds, they will inevitably have a tendency to weaken their interest in their particular national problems and history. In our own day Paris fights with Washington for supremacy of attention, as, indeed, Washington has fought with Albany and Harrisburg—and won over them. So complete is the national triumph that there does not exist today a good history of states as great as New York and Pennsylvania. Will the same tendency be created by the gradually growing process of united world thought under a league of nations? That, also, is a question the future will have to answer. It would seem, however, that it would work itself out in the same way it has worked out in the United States, but at a much slower rate of advance. The league is not as strong as our union. If it were ammended to make it as strong as the advocate of greatest strength desire, it would still be far short of our union. But it is possible that the adoption of the league will be the first step in the evolution of a real world state. If that state should ever come into existence, it would seem that the position of national history would be weakened eventually. That event, however, is so remote that it need not concern the present historian. He cannot change the process of development, and if he is true to his calling he will not wish to change it merely to preserve his own position.

He can comfort himself with the thought that the establishment of a world state would add to the men and ideas of the national period the interest of being considered antiques. Some ages hence the cosmopolitan beneficiaries of our sacrifice of nationality would discover charm and picturesqueness in the life of the national period of history. Possibly intellectually refined people would form societies to study it. They would give masked balls to reproduce its costumes and its dances, even as we today deal with the charming and picturesque manners and ideas of the colonial period. God wot! What cares the present

historian? A man decays when he is dead. It is the stream of life that goes on. A man gives his body to the earth whence it came. No. He does not give it. He has to surrender it. Why should not nations give themselves to the great world destiny, whatever it may be, with equal nonchalence? And as for us who aspire, we do our best when we do what we can to make the life stream run smoothly and gently over the face of the earth.

DISCUSSION

Mr. Harold D. Steward, South Side High School, Newark, N. J.: I am nonplussed to be first on the list to discuss this paper because I expected to hear the discussion of others first. Then I would need only to say I agreed, and all would be over. I had hoped that the paper presented would give me something with which I could disagree. But it seems to me that Professor Bassett has presented the case for the League of Nations in such a way that none of us may find fault with anything he suggested. I thought of speaking perhaps to-night more from the standpoint of the high school rather than that of the college. I should like to speak of the practical question of teaching the League of Nations to high school students rather than to discuss the value of the League of Nations as an academic question. It seems to me that this is an extremely difficult thing, yet a thing that can be accomplished in the schools. We can get the average high school boy and girl to grasp the ideal of a League of Nations and to satisfy himself or herself that it is worth while. In our own school we have been studying current events for a good many years, and the World War, of course, and the Peace Conference. The development of the idea of the League of Nations has simply intensified that study. In our third and fourth years of history the classes are devoting some of the time to such discussions, and in the first and second years all of the time is devoted to civics. All of the classes use some sort of a magazine. We found that a little pamphlet published by the League to Enforce Peace, containing the first draft of the covenant extremely helpful. These copies could be obtained very easily and were used in the classroom, and for three or four days the time was spent in an exhaustive study of the various propositions of the League. The newspapers were followed, and the arguments for and against the League of Nations were presented. I feel that the history teachers of the cities where such a large percentage of foreign popula-

tion and pupils who come from homes where the newspapers perhaps are not read as carefully as they might be, have a good opportunity to bring these facts home, and in our school we endeavor to do those things. In some cities they have gone so far as to prevent the discussion of the League of Nations. We are thankful that Newark, which I represent, is not one of these cities.

Dean Albert K. Heckel, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.: I am very much interested in the excellent paper which has been presented and yet I confess that it does not leave my mind clearly made up on the subject of the League of Nations. We know very little, it seems to me, about the real character and probable function of the league. There have been opportunity and need, certainly, for an education of public opinion in this matter, but they have been neglected. True, we have had plenty of emotional appeal, but we have had little of exposition. This leads me to wonder if the critics of the new covenant are merely reactionary politicians and selfish nationalists, or if they are far-seeing statesmen. It leaves me thinking that President Wilson, himself, may have been on safe ground when in 1915 he declared against a too intimate association with the powers of Europe, giving for his reason that we were going in a different direction from them in both aim and destiny.

During the war, definite propaganda tending to improve military morale glossed over all that had been previously regarded by America as the shortcomings in the political and diplomatic policies of our European associates. This was right. But before entering into a covenant with these nations, which will bind us in our future foreign policy, is it not wisdom to remember their traditions in playing the game of international politics? Can America remain America, hampered by European rules? To what extent will each phrase of the League of Nations covenant bind us to Old World ideals, and modify our own? This is what the average citizen ought to have explained to him before he is called on to say whether he favors or opposes the league. This is what has not yet been done.

CONFERENCE WITH THE COMMITTEE ON HISTORY AND EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP IN THE SCHOOLS

Saturday Morning, May 10, 1919

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

Based upon Preliminary Report of above Committee as printed in the *Historical Outlook*, May, 1919

PROFESSOR WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, Teachers College, Columbia University: It is a very great privilege indeed to be here with you and to have this opportunity of getting from you advice and suggestions with regard to the work of the new Committee. As I have taken this responsibility of representing this new Commitee, I might say a word or two about the origin of the Committee. The Committee was organized and appointed by the American Historical Association and the Board for Historical Service for the purpose of determining what changes should be recommended in connection with the teaching of history in the elementary and secondary schools. It was organized last fall and has had three or four meetings, in the course of which we have come to some provisional conclusions. We wish to put those conclusions before the history teachers throughout the country to get just as far as possible the most intimate kind of advice and suggestions before proceeding to anything in the nature of a final report. This final report must be ready about the beginning of the schools in the fall.

Now, the discussions of the Committee thus far have been concerned primarily in the content of the historical instruction of the elementary and secondary schools, and chiefly the discussions have been centered about the work of the high schools. It is agreed that we can expect but two years of history in the secondary program. From the first it was generally agreed that there should be a course in Modern History, and Modern World History, beginning 1789, and with strong emphasis laid on recent events. Whether this should be in the second year or not is

the question upon which advice is necessary. Should we consider modern history as the chief subject of historical study in the high school course, or a course in the history of the United States, to be undertaken primarily on the basis of problem organization.

When we came to discuss the elementary program of study, the feeling was expressed on the part of two or three in the Committee that a radical departure from the program of the Committee would not be needed. We found that that conclusion was not generally accepted. However, when we come to discuss the matter with people who are primarily interested in the elementary school work there seems to be a general feeling that the report of the Committee needs to be thoroughly revised and changed. Professor Schafer and one or two members of the Committee have worked out a provisional statement of a program of elementary study which does differ in some marked ways from the original program of the Committee of Eight. I think that if possible the course for the elementary schools should be the first point upon which to concentrate. Copies of the *Historical Outlook* have been distributed. You will find in this number of the *Historical Outlook*, on page 281, an outline given as an appendix of the suggested course of History in the grades. You will see that it differs rather radically from the program of the Committee of Eight. For the first and second years no history work distinct from the work in reading is to be recognized. The idea of Schafer's here is that the work of the first two grades should be concentrated upon to give the children a mastery of reading, and that while history material should be used rather liberally, still at the same time only definite reading could be made.

The third year begins the real program. Here we have an attempt to get started at the beginning of things with stories of the Early Man, going back to primitive times, utilizing the literature adapted to third grade pupils in connection with stories of the cave men and other primitive forms of human lives. That is supplemented later by stories of the pre-Greek world.

The fourth year is divided, according to Professor Schafer, between stories of Greece and how the Greeks lived; stories of Rome and how the Romans lived. The treatment to be dramatic as for the third grade—a departure from the old Committee of Eight, which recommended here stories for this fourth year.

For the fifth year, stories of the Middle Ages; how men lived; stories of invention, and stories of maritime discoveries; Spanish

conquests and settlements in North and South America. This is again a departure from the report of the Committee of Eight. The Committee of Eight recommended for the fifth year stories of American History, beginning with Patrick Henry, and the period immediately preceding the revolution.

In the sixth year, stories of England including the Industrial Revolution, English colonization in America; conflict with Spain, Holland, France; life in the English colonies, seventeenth and eighteenth century. The Committee of Eight recommended the European background for this period, with little emphasis upon English History.

The seventh year is not changed from the report of the Committee of Eight. It starts a little later, so to speak.

The eighth year is given over to a study of problems in American democracy.

I should be very glad to pause for any suggestions, questions or criticisms in regard to the general outline we are presenting.

SPEAKER in audience: How are you going to provide American history for those who leave school in the sixth grade?

PROFESSOR BAGLEY: The report of the Committee of Eight did provide for those pupils in the fourth and fifth grades. These children will have some familiarity with the history of the English, but they will have no bird's-eye view of the whole field of American history.

DR. KNOWLTON: That question came up in the conference which we had on this report. We felt after all was said and done, that up to the fifth year the work presented was in the main story work; and that the entire field had not really been covered in any concentrated chronological fashion. We had simply brought the boys and girls face to face with certain great figures in our history. The present committee has no idea of leaving out or passing over the biographies of some of our great men. We felt that the report of the Committee of Eight perhaps did not give the boy or girl any very satisfactory knowledge of American History previous to the sixth grade. I remember calling to the attention of the Committee the fact that so many students left school at that time. We have the feeling that perhaps we have overlooked the actual results accomplished. The case on its face was very satisfactory in providing for a fairly comprehensive survey in those early years. We would question however whether the boy or girl was not too immature to carry out the thing the Committee

of Eight were looking for. We would like to give him a fair knowledge of his own country. I recall Professor Johnson saying that the thing to be highly desired was a consecutive course. I was talking with Dr. Claxton not long ago and he came out very squarely in favor of the position that we must plan for a consecutive course right on through to the end of the high school. He would divide American history into ten or a dozen odd portions and present one of these in each grade. How about the people who leave school before the course is completed?

Dr. Sullivan, State Historian, New York: I believe that the Committee ought to be prepared to meet the criticisms that come up as to the first and second grades. I think that the Committee wants to be very specific as to its demands for instruction in history in those stages. If you are not specific about the nature of the study all the other people will demand that their subjects be put in, and the first thing you know the history background will not be given even in the reading.

Dr. Knowlton: Do the people here think that the report of the Committee of Eight is meeting the situation, that is, do their courses meet it? On the face it looks very pretty. But does it meet the situation any better than our suggestions which look ahead along very definite lines?

Mr. Siebert, of Macmillan Co.: I am familiar with history courses in general, and I should say that probably two thirds of the students of history in the elementary schools are studying history without very much regard to the report of the Committee of Eight.

Miss Mohair, public schools, Newark, N. J.: Where I teach, the pupils repeat in the eighth grade what they have learned in the sixth, so that when they get to the eighth grade they think they know it all, whereas they know nothing. This results in a loss of interest. This has been my impression of the work.

Professor Bagley: Your argument, as I gathered, is based on the fact that the pupils do not get the interest in history that they should. But what are we going to do about the pupils who leave?

Dr. Knowlton (in reply to an objection covering the committee's attitude toward biography): We are suggesting biographies not so much as a means by which the boy or girl may become acquainted with these men; we are teaching the men with their times.

Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia, Pa.:

It seems to me we must keep in mind the psychology of the child as we know it. In the first three grades of their school life children are in the imaginative state, and therefore they are getting interested in actual people. Along about the fourth or fifth grade another stage is apparent—the stage of hero-worship. I thoroughly agree with what Dr. Knowlton said about two years of history for the high schools. I am just wondering whether he would not need a little bit of child psychology before he was done with the report.

Dr. Knowlton: I do not see why these stories should not be told in some order. It seems to me that we do not make any radical departure until we come to the story of England. Before that we have given the background of the culture of those early times.

Dr. Sullivan: Is there any place in which the Committee of Eight's program is being used in which the American History is presented in such a fashion that when the pupils get through with the sixth year they may be said to have a good knowledge of American History? I understood the lady in the rear to say that the work was so well done in the sixth year that the pupils lost interest in the seventh and eighth years.

Professor Gamrill, Teachers' College, New York City: There is a tendency towards raising the compulsory education limit. We have a very large interest in the extending of the period of education, and in securing attendance until we have a nation wide movement in that direction. This national bill for compulsory education ought to have considerable value.

Motion made to the effect that it is no longer necessary to continue the cycle method of history, and that the time has come for recommending a continuous course. Affirmative, 20; Negative, 9.

Dr. Knowlton: The Committee stands fundamentally upon the position outlined by Professor Schafer. You are considering a cycle arrangement, but not the old cycle. There is no reason in the eyes of the Committee why you shouldn't adopt a consecutive course of study. If you could show us a good reason we should be very glad to modify our course of study in accordance with your suggestion.

Miss Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia: I feel personally concerned about the children who drop out year by year. We lose a large percentage from the sixth grade on, and

the great mistake we have made in history has been building a consecutive course, allowing those who leave to go with the first bite and not get something that is worth while. I suggest that at the end of each year the children shall have gained something that is worth while in itself.

SPEAKER from floor: My ideas have just been expressed by Miss Evans, except on the question of the number of persons who are leaving school at the end of the sixth grade. It seems to me that this course neglects those children entirely. There is no place for American History in the course. If Dr. Knowlton omits American History from the outline we are making a great mistake in view of the large proportion of students who are leaving at the end of the sixth grade.

DR. KNOWLTON: When we were meeting at Chicago at the very first conference we found that very objection raised. I want to make this point very clear. There has been no desire on the part of the Committee to pull to pieces and destroy the recommendations of the Committee of Eight. We felt in our very first meeting the necessity of strengthening that sixth year work as planned by the Committee of Eight. When we came to face the situation in more detail the general opinion of the Committee was that it was highly desirable to push all this work back leaving the eighth year free for what we might call a culminating course, a bringing together of all the points emphasized throughout the course. It is the idea of the Committee to give that background as far as they can of European culture out of which the United States emerged, and all the way through establish points of contact between the past and the present.

DR. SCHUYLER: I wonder why you gave two years to the stories of early man and stories of Greece and Rome.

DR. KNOWLTON: With reference to the work planned for the early years I think we are taking it altogether too seriously. We are simply taking advantage of the imaginative mind of the child. We ought to give them something really worth while that will cultivate an attitude of mind which will prepare them for the work later on.

DR. SULLIVAN: Do you really approve of the third and fourth year as it stands?

DR. KNOWLTON: I don't know why Dr. Sullivan should ask a question of that sort. We felt in talking this matter over, in the light of letters we have had from experienced teachers who were

able to give us suggestions, that this was perhaps the best thing we could suggest for those years, and that it gave our boys and girls the basis for a consecutive history course. I don't see any objection to that. May be there is something better which could be submitted.

Dr. Schuyler: I wonder whether that sixth year could have a certain amount of American History, carrying on the story of the movement of the Europeans out over the United States. It seems to me that if we could tell in the sixth grade the story of the development of American life, and in the seventh the story of world life, it would be a good opportunity in the eighth grade to sum the whole thing up in the great problems of life as they express themselves to the intelligent boy or girl, ready to go out into the world.

Motion made by Dr. McKinley: That it is the sense of this meeting that American biographies and history should be inserted to a greater extent in the grade before the sixth. Affirmative, 18. Negative, 10.

Moved and carried that the course of study in the sixth grade outlined by the Committee should include European history as well as English history.

Moved and carried that the Committee receive and solicit suggestions with regard to formulating different programs and types of organization.

PHILADELPHIA MEETING

November 29, 1919, at 10 A. M.

HOUSTON HALL, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

TOPIC: *History Teaching as Propaganda in Dealing with After-War Problems—Its Use and Abuse.*

Address by DR. JAMES SULLIVAN, New York State Historian, Albany, N. Y.

Unlike many topics which are laid before conventions of this kind for discussion, this has been carefully limited as to its scope so that we do not think that it is our function to enter into the discussion of any subdivisions of such a topic which relate to pre-war conditions and the causes of the Great War. In other words we are strictly confined to dealing with after-war problems. By connotation in the words "history teaching" we are also to be limited to the history teacher in the exercise of his profession in the classroom or in the institution of which he is a part. History, however, is so inclusive a subject that I do not think it was intended by the makers of the program to exclude such subjects as civics, or government, or economics, which form a part of history and must inevitably be treated by the teacher of the latter subject.

We should also make a distinction between the history teacher in a public institution and a teacher in a private institution. Some institutions are established for the distinct purpose of propaganda and have men employed whose particular purpose is to exploit the notions of some founder. I do not think it would be wrong to say that the founder of the Wharton School, now a part of the University of Pennsylvania, had in mind that this school was for the distinct purpose of laying before the youth the material which would prove to them the great advantages of protection as opposed to free trade. I may be in error with reference to this, but certainly some of the graduates of this institution with whom I used to be associated in years past always gave

me that impression. We are also familiar with such institutions as that of the Rand School of Social Science in New York, with the Modern School founded by Ferrer in Spain, and with the school founded by Padraic Pearce in Dublin. These institutions were private; they had a distinct object in their foundation; and the teacher who entered their walls was of course in a very different position from a teacher in the institutions which we ordinarily denominate public, meaning by that that they are conducted by the State or a subdivision of the State, and that the salaries of the teachers therein are paid for from public funds. Clearly the position of a teacher in the latter kind of institution is very different from that of a teacher in any one of the former. I think we would all agree that were a teacher in the former institutions to start in to teach doctrines contrary to the intention of the founder, the private authorities in charge of such institutions would immediately discharge such instructor. If a man employed as a minister in an Episcopalian Church, which is fundamentally committed to a creed which involves belief in the Trinity, were to deny the very foundation of such church, we would not regard it as a hardship or wrong for the authorities in that church to discharge the minister. Reversing conditions, the same would be true of a clergyman who had taken a position in a Unitarian Church and then proceeded to lay down and try to convert his congregation to the belief of the Trinitarians. We might amplify this statement to any length, but the distinction is certainly perfectly clear.

Turning now to the public school set up by the State, we are confronted by a somewhat confused idea. In recent years, under the influence of a certain school of educators who have been pushing the so-called notion of democracy in education, the idea has spread widely that a teacher in our public institutions, not only can, but should, use his position to exercise what they have been pleased to call educational freedom in the classroom. This has been interpreted to mean that a teacher should have his own particular views on any subject and use his position as a teacher to exploit these views and impress them upon the youth under his control, regardless of the fact that these views may be subversive of the very institution which is giving education to the young and bread and butter to the teacher. The proponents of this theory maintain that unless the teacher is given such a privilege he will be nothing more than a phonograph, and that

his position would be that of an automaton. The State unlike the private employer is denied the right by the protagonists of this doctrine to interfere with this freedom of the classroom and to discharge the teacher who is preaching doctrines subversive of the State's founations.

Opposed to this group of defenders of democracy in education is another class of people, or educators, who maintain that one should avoid in the classroom all mention of any subject which might be conducive to a discussion of present day problems and thus involve the teacher in the temptation of becoming a propagandist for his own particular views. This group would thus inevitably confine the teaching of history to the more remote past and never get down to the actual present. Even in teaching fields of remote history they would carefully exclude subjects which might be of vital interest in the present. I refer to a certain group of educators who feel that the history of the Reformation should not be handled in the classroom because of the fear that offense will be given to some one religious sect or another. Here again we might extend our examples to a very long list but one case is sufficient to show the point of view.

Between these two extremes there exists other teachers of varying shades of opinion, each one seemingly desirous of determining for himself the extent to which he should go in one direction of another but never getting into the extreme positions of those two classes mentioned above.

Turning now to that group that would tolerate the existence in the classroom of a teacher possessed of very strong convictions along any line, political, industrial, or religious, we find that their most important argument is that it is inevitable in the presentation of any subject for a teacher to impress his convictions and his prejudices upon the minds of his pupils, and that if he does not do so he is an ineffective teacher. Their argument absolutely precludes the possibility of a teacher giving an academic statement concerning any subject. It virtually declares that such subjects as free trade and protection, socialism and capitalism, the League of Nations and nationalism, cannot be laid before the students in such a fashion as to give them a fair estimate of both sides of the question. With this point of view I think that most of us are in a decided disagreement. We can in our own experience point out men who have been great teachers and still have succeeded in giving us a fair view and purely academic statement

of the reasons for and against any one of these great issues. Certainly in my own experience I can refer to two of my greatest teachers, such as Professor Taussig, recently Chairman of the Tariff Commission, and Professor James the great psychologist, and many others, who left the strongest impress upon their students, but at no times allowed themselves to become protagonists in the classroom of any particular views, political or religious, for the purpose of making converts to their own ways of thinking. If a teacher finds that it is impossible for him to deal with such subjects without making himself a medium for conversion of the young mind, it would certainly seem wisest for him to refrain from such discussions. There are some teachers who simply cannot present the subject of the Reformation without showing either a strongly anti-Catholic or strongly anti-Protestant bias. Some conspicuous examples which relate to this special field are known to most of us and it is unnecessary to treat of them.

Suppose, however, that we feel that it is very essential to treat of present day problems in the classroom, are we subject to any limitations in our public institutions outside of those which we have referred to above? In order to arrive at any just conclusion in this matter it is necessary for us to give a brief consideration to the fundamental character of the employer, which is the State. It is not necessary to go into the details of political theory in order to get this subject before you. I think we can in a very few words make it clear that there is that semi organized group which we generally designate by the name of society; that this congregation of individuals, for purposes, which, over thousands of years have been recognized, has for the good of most of the individuals within the group, set up a machine, either by means of an unwritten or written document, which we denominate the Constitution and which determine for us an instrument which we call government. When such a machine is set up individuals are chosen to work it. I think we can see that there are three kinds of things here which may be subject to attack. First, there is society itself, second, the machine which it has set up to govern itself, and third, there are the individuals who are chosen to work the machine. Propaganda, which looks to the undetermining of the social body and those institutions to which it has grown accustomed, is most likely to create in the minds of a very large majority of people an attitude of extreme hostility to the propagandists and to bring about the severest kind of

persecution. The same may be said to be equally true of that propaganda that would seek to change the machinery of the government through means other than those determined upon to be legal and orderly, for almost all modern societies, that have set up the machinery of government have made a provision by which such machinery may be changed. Propaganda which is against the men who are chosen from time to time to run the machinery of government is not regarded with such severe reprobation by the people in general as is the propaganda against the first two institutions which have been mentioned. At the same time there is, even in regard to the latter, a question, not so much of legality as of good taste, and when such attacks are launched against men who are actively carrying on the government in the present, there is a different attitude from those which are taken up against men long dead.

No teacher of common sense would regard it as his function to carry on a discussion of current politics in such a fashion as to arouse political passions and to come into conflict with the numerous religious views held in a State such as ours. On the other hand we cannot demominate as propaganda the teaching of such elements as have for their object the maintenance of the institutions of the society and the government which support the schools. There have been some who have maintained that because a teacher is not interfered with, who teaches love and veneration of existing institutions, therefore the teacher who is in opposition to such institutions should not be prevented from exploiting his views. Here again our first distinction between those who are employed by a private institution and who support the views of that institution, and those who are employed in institutions supported by the State, is applicable. The conclusion to be drawn is that if a teacher has an irresistible impulse to try to undermine existing institutions, he should do it in such private institutions as have been referred to above. Whether such institutions should be interfered with by the State or society is a question which I shall not take up here this morning, for the reason that it does not come within the confines of the topic.

To take up some of the problems which confront the teacher of the present day, such as Americanism, the control of industry, the League of Nations, the Irish Republic, and the like, we are confronted with the question as to our own attitude on these subjects. The word Americanism, although much abused, is

capable of being very closely defined, and in a body like this we should probably reach an almost unanimous decision as to its constituent parts. I think that each one of us would severely condemn the teacher who failed to teach the irreducible minimum of those points which we would determine upon as making for the development of good American citizens. We would be equally condemnatory of those teachers and those authors of textbooks who by virture of their methods of presentation would lead our pupils to believe that this country of ours is the land of graft and the dollar. Such people, because of the wrongdoings of a few who are brought into limelight, show a weakness in condemning the many who are not guilty of such wrongs.

In the industrial field a teacher is inevitably brought into contact with such subjects as government ownership, trade unions, the make work theory advocated by some laborers, communism, socialism, and the recently coined term of bolshevism. To hide one's head in the sand like an ostrich is not the proper attitude for a teacher to take. These are topics of present day moment. They must be confronted and the sane teacher will treat of them in the classroom as the best place to disabuse the pupils of one-sided presentations of such important subjects. The vast majority of teachers will do this kind of work with sanity. Only a few will exhibit traces of insanity and attack the institutions which he is employed to teach respect and regard for.

Very recently a case was called to my attention in one of the schools of New York City in which a teacher allowed her enthusiasm for the establishment of the Irish Republic to get the best of her discretion. Some of the pupils naturally resented the one-sided way in which she was treating the subject and carried it home to the parents. In other words, this teacher was using her position to carry on propaganda in favor of a movement which had two very distinct sides. Most of us feel that we can treat of that subject, present both sides of it in such a fashion as to give the student an intelligent notion of the grievances which the Irish have and of the extremely serious problems which confront the English government in trying to work out a solution.

Another subject, like that of the League of Peace, is likely to bring up most serious discussions in the classroom, and the teacher simply cannot avoid touching upon the subject. Favorable as she may be to the league, or opposed to it as bitterly as some teachers are, her maturity should at least dictate to her

that she could present the arguments pro and con without being a propagandist. In fact I see no objection whatsoever for the teacher to be perfectly frank and say what her private opinions are. There is at times a certain advantage in a stand like this, for it in a way forewarns the pupil that she is in a measure committed to certain views of her own, and that, therefore, these have to be discounted.

We are also going to be confronted with a serious discussion of the protective tariff for chemical industries which have sprung up during the World War. Some of us may be free traders, and yet we cannot blind ourselves to the fact that a system that amounted to free trade in chemicals made us so absolutely dependent on outsiders for our sources of supply that we would now seriously question the advisability for permitting ourselves to be placed in such a position again.

The last subject which is going to excite a good deal of attention in the near future is that of normal instruction, and the need for a certain kind of spiritual regeneration which most of us teachers feel is necessary in our body politic. Whether we can engage in this kind of teaching without encroaching upon fields of doctrinal religion only the experiment can determine. If we were to engage in a kind of religious instruction, which could be denominated as doctrinal, the dangers would be very great, but to many of us it seems possible to undertake this most recent and unsolved problem in our public schools, and to do a great deal of propaganda, if we were to call it such, for the fundamental betterment of our spiritual and moral life.

HISTORY TEACHING AS PROPAGANDA IN DEALING WITH AFTER-WAR PROBLEMS—ITS USE AND ABUSE

Address by Professor Thomas J. Wertenbaker,

Princeton University.

History is the memory of the nation. Its function is to make the experience of the past serve as a guide for the problems of the present. Unless history can perform this function its study will be almost purposeless, and the recital of the events of other days becomes little more than an interesting story.

The lessons that history teaches are indispensable. It may be true, as Treitschke was wont to say, thundering it out at his students, that "History never repeats itself," yet there is enough similarity between the events of today and the events of the past to make the study of the latter necessary for an understanding of the former. If it were not for history, what would there be to keep the human race from repeating over and over again the same blunders, from experiencing indefinitely the same round of misfortunes? Even the savage Indians of North America were not without their history, for tradition and legend told them how their mythical heroes met and conquered the problems that arose in the dim past.

"A burnt child avoids the fire." Is the human race to be less wise than an infant? Yet were it not for the preservation and study of history, it would be unaware of the experiences through which it had already gone, would continue to burn itself with monotonous regularity. The nation, the race, cannot do without its memory—which is history.

Therefore, teachers of history, in presenting our subject we must be careful to give only the truth. We must teach the truth in the strictest sense and only the truth. We have not right, in order to serve the purpose of the hour, to falsify the story of past events, even to present them in a false or colored light. Nor does it matter what that purpose is, how noble, how vital it may

be; even though we believe that the safety of the nation may hinge upon it. The history teacher who deviates one iota from the facts, if he misrepresents the facts, is false to his trust.

Let him regard himself as the machinery of the nation's brain by means of which its memory functions. Should he fail in his duty, the nation is betrayed, just as the individual man is betrayed when his memory proves treacherous. Therefore teach the truth only.

It has seemed to some an excellent thing to make history serve the purposes of patriotism by using it to instill into our children a love of the United States, a pride in the accomplishment of our fathers in establishing and maintaining it. And of course this is quite wise and proper. But it is not wise, it is not proper for them to overstep the mark by making history conform to whatever this purpose seems to demnad. Unfortunately only too often history has been taught, not as it is, but as the instructor thought it ought to be; it has not always been the bare, uncolored, unprejudiced facts that were given, but facts as seen through patriotic spectacles. This, it is true, may have served a temporary purpose that in itself was admirable, may well have made patriotic citizens, but it carried with it the possibility of national disaster, because it was a perversion of the nation's memory.

Have we not an excellent illustration of this in the story, so sedulously taught for decades, that throughout American history we have always been able to defend our liberties without an extensive and careful system of military preparation? How many of us have told the story of how, during the Revolution, the untrained American farmer, when the British came, taking down his old flintlock and going out to meet them, proved more than a match for their disciplined regiments? This story may have enthralled the school children, may have fired them with pride and patriotism, but it proved a dangerous thing when the United States was threatened by the ambition of imperial Germany. The teachings of years had to be undone, the falseness of the old conception exposed, before the people could understand the necessity of preparedness.

It may be argued that this was not false teaching, that it was true that at Bunker Hill and at Bennington raw recruits held their own against the Red Coats. Yet if it be not false teaching it is unfair teaching, it is a distortion of the lessons of history by the selection of the unusual, the exception to bolster up a

false contention. From the beginning to the end of our Revolution there is nothing more clearly shown than the inefficiency, one might almost say the uselessness, of untrained troops. And the lesson taught then was repeated in the War of 1812, the Mexican War, the Civil War, the Spanish War. Yet it was not until the World War of 1914, and then with vast effort, that we dispelled the old erroneous ideas in order to avail ourselves of the clear teachings of our own history. The memory of the nation had played it false, had more than once led it into disaster, had threatened to lead to ruin. You cannot play with history. It is not a romance, it is not a mere pleasant story, but a recital of facts. History teachers, it is a sacred trust that has been given to you, you have no right to abuse it.

It is impossible to tell what may be the consequences of a false presentation of history. Results may flow from it of the most far-reaching import. And these results, since they grow out of falsehood and not out of truth, are apt to be bad. From the countless examples which might be cited, it is interesting to note that of the Napoleonic Legend. It will be remembered that France, a few decades after the final downfall of the Emperor, began to look back with pride and longing upon the period of his rule. Men's knowledge of the evils and the suffering that Napoleon had brought upon France and Europe had grown dim, and only the memory of his glory remained. And thus for years his praise was sung in poetry, his deeds glorified in history. Children were taught to believe that under the Emperor France had been great and glorious, that all Europe had trembled before her, that no foe had been able to stand against her armies. It was the Napoleonic Legend which had grown up, thrilling, fair, glorious. But it was a distortion of history, a false presentation of facts; the over-emphasizing of certain events, the suppression of others.

And France was forced to pay the penalty by the unnecessary and harmful repetition of her experiment with imperialism. The negligence of Louis Philippe in permitting this propaganda to continue unanswered, not only was partly responsible for the overthrow of his throne, but it was perhaps the most important factor in the dismal failure of the Second Republic. It led directly to the election of Louis Napoleon to the presidency in December, 1848, and later to the restoration of the Empire.

Thus the fact that France had lost her memory, had forgotten the true character of the First Empire, led her into the mistake

of permitting the establishment of the Second. Her historians had failed of their duty, had played her false, and the consequences were far-reaching. Again we see that the teaching of history is too vital a matter to be treated lightly, for the fate of a great nation may turn upon it. Let us see to it that we build correctly, that we present and interpret aright the lessons of the past.

But it is proper, it is necessary that teachers should select for emphasis from the pages of history those events which throw light upon the problems of the present. Otherwise history would lose its chief value, would fail of its chief function. Were teachers not to do that, the nation's memory would not function properly, one might almost say it would not function at all. As the individual, when he finds himself confronted by perplexing problems, searches his mind for past experiences that may guide him, so must the nation search its history for direction in settling the questions which constantly present themselves.

Is it a matter of inflation? The teacher should bring out before his classes the story of paper money in the past. He should discuss the colonial issues, the Continental currency, the paper money of the Confederation period, the greenbacks. These experiences are all valuable, all instructive, all would bear directly upon the point at issue. If it is a case of infringements upon neutral trade by contending nations, let the instructor hark back to the events leading up to the War of 1812.

At present perhaps the greatest problem facing this nation is that of dealing with the propaganda of the radical agitators who are swarming to our shores to attempt the overthrow of our Government. In meeting this danger there lies a very grave obligation upon the history teachers. It is for them more than for any other group of men and women to counteract the efforts of these misguided persons. We may now serve the nation nobly by pointing out those lessons of history which bear upon this matter. We must draw upon the fund of information which study has placed at our command to bring forth and to emphasize the events in our past which will show the childishness of the Bolshevik dream.

It needs not a false presentation of history, it needs not the obscuring of certain events and the over emphasizing of others. It requires no more than a bare recital of the facts that relate to the case, the summing up of the world's experiences with such

matters. Let the teacher turn the student's mind to the proper field of study, show him where the facts are to be obtained and he will not be able to escape the lessons these facts convey.

In order to accomplish this end it is even desirable that the teacher change his reference books, perhaps even his texts, in the very middle of the course. At present it seems to me that every class in American History, whether in college or in high school, could derive vast benefit from the use of Madison's Notes on the Constitutional Convention. There should at least be in every library a number of copies of this invaluable work, and the student should be required to refer to it on frequent occasions. Let him work out reports and essays from its pages, let him follow out in the Convention the debates upon this subject or that.

Nothing better could demonstrate to him the fact that to change constitutional laws, to make innovations in vital institutions, all the skill of experts, all the wisdom of specialists, all the deliberations of master minds are requisite. It will make it evident that the fundamental laws upon which the social fabric rests are not the creation of the brains of any man or group of men, but the growth of the ages. Let him see how reverently, how tenderly this assemblage, filled as it was with the greatest political thinkers of the age, touched the institutions which they had inherited from their fathers. Let him realize that once only did they venture to invent a new governmental device, the machinery for electing the president, and that that proved a dismal failure, and he cannot but see the folly of those half-educated men who today desire to demolish at one stroke all that the centuries have built up, with the fatuous belief that their brains are capable of creating a structure to take its place. It will grow in upon him that a lunatic may cut down and destroy a tree, but he cannot, the wisest man in the world cannot, create a tree to take its place. This must be the work of natural growth, the growth of many years.

I feel confident that even a superficial acquaintance with Madison's Notes would make the student proof against the arguments even of a Lenine, but if there should be any doubt on this point, the work could be completed by an outline course upon the origin and development of Anglo-Saxon liberty. Let the student learn how it found its roots back in the days before the Norman Conquest, how it developed slowly through the centuries, how it was fought for by generations of our ancestors, how it was brought to these shores by the dauntless settlers at Jamestown and

Plymouth, how it was defended during the Revolution, how it was nurtured and expanded during the century and a third of our national existence. This cannot fail to do the work. Our student will be armed with facts, will be acquainted with the events of history which bear on this matter, so that he must understand the folly of the attempt that is being made.

In many of our schools and colleges we have courses in contemporaneous problems. These courses are devised to awaken the interest of the student in the great questions of the day, and to accustom him to intelligent investigation and discussion of them. Often they use as their texts some magazine which treats of the problems of the day. Teachers of these courses would add greatly to the interest of the work and the value of the results were they to require their students to search the pages of history for cases analogous to those arising, and having found them to apply their lessons. Not only would this be wonderfully stimulating to teacher and pupil, but it would result in many discoveries valuable for both. It would, in truth, be making history serve its true purpose.

In conclusion, then, we may say that history's chief function is to act as the memory of the world, that teachers of history have no right to tamper with its truths for fear that by so doing they will mislead the people in the hour of need, that, however, it is right and proper, it is absolutely necessary to make use of history by applying to the problems of the day the experiences of the past. In short, we must see that the world's memory functions correctly.

HISTORY TEACHING AS PROPAGANDA IN DEALING WITH AFTER-WAR PROBLEMS—ITS USE AND ABUSE

Discussion opened by Professor George F. Zook,

State College, Pennsylvania.

Experience demonstrates that teachers of history have, to a greater extent than the teachers of other social sciences, clung to the ideal of teaching the exact manner in which events follow one another and have refrained from using historical information to point out social lessons for the present generation. To be sure teachers of history commonly draw conclusions concerning the effect of certain conditions on the life of nations, if the examples are considerably removed from present affairs, but ordinarily they gradually cease to interpret events as the modern era is approached. This ideal as to the way in which history should be considered has been a wholesome attitude of mind for the writer of history but it is open to question whether it should not be considerably modified in the teaching of history.

A very cursory examination of the situation, especially in the secondary schools, at once reveals the fact that the amount of history taught has of late years not kept pace with the increase of work along other lines. To a certain extent history has been replaced by the practical arts and by other work of a social science nature. This change would perhaps have come about anyway but it has been hastened by the lack of any other purpose on the part of the history teacher than to portray things "as they actually happened." In colleges and universities this tendency has been illustrated by the failure of professors to give proper attention to the recent periods of European and American history. In the secondary schools it has resulted in the continuation of a surprising amount of the old type of general history which often fails to take anything into account after the Franco-Prussian War. The natural result of this situation has been that

history teaching has been greatly enervated and has declined in popular appreciation especially in the secondary schools.

Recently there has been a demand for greater attention to the modern period of history which demand has been accentuated by the Great War. This demand has undoubtedly arisen from the fact that many people have come to think less of history as literature and more of it as a means of explaining modern problems. Naturally such people believe that the study of the more recent periods of history accomplishes this purpose better than the study of the more remote periods. In other words there is a demand, especially among those students who have time for only one or two courses in history, for the living past, the past that now lives. Such a demand arises from the belief that history has its lessons for today's problems and interpretation of such historical events is therefore regarded not only as interesting but vital. This demand the history teacher cannot and should not ignore. A teacher who is animated by the intention to lay especial emphasis on those features of history which are found in present day life will have greater purpose in his teaching and will undoubtedly respond to the demand for a very considerable amount of interpretation of events. If this is propaganda, and it seems to me that it comes very close to being such, I have no doubt that there will be much of it in our history class rooms in the future. At any rate those teachers who are inspired by such beliefs will be likely to be regarded as the most successful teachers of history, especially in our secondary schools.

The results of history teaching of this character will for the most part be good. It will not only add definite purpose to the teaching but it will do much to withstand the onslaught of radical propaganda outside the classroom. A prominent English writer recently said that the greatest problem of modern times is to protect the source of public information. It might well be added that a problem of almost equal magnitude is to provide a way whereby the public may become better acquainted with the interpretations placed on these events by men and women who are particularily well acquainted with them and their antecedents. In other words a history teacher is, or at least should be, in a position to give sane interpretations which will go a long way toward combating the propaganda of the unintelligent radical not to speak of the lack of vision of the ultra-conservative.

It will immediately occur to many people that anything ap-

proaching the nature of propaganda on the part of history teachers is fraught with much danger. It must be admitted that there is possible danger—more particularly it seems to me on the part of those secondary school teachers of history who are not adequately prepared for their work. To urge them to an extensive interpretation of historical events as a means of explaining modern problems is to open the possibilities of much fallacious teaching. However, it must be observed that such teachers have the text-book to prevent them from going too far astray, and it is a matter of common observation that badly prepared teachers do not wander very far from the confines of their text-books.

From teachers who are well prepared for their work and from professors of history in colleges and universities there seems to me to be little danger in this connection. As yet there is no class of social scientists who are more inspired with a zeal to know the truth or with a greater spirit of fairness than historians. It ought to be possible to combine this zeal and this spirit of fairness with a more definite purpose to assist in the solution of modern problems. If this can be accomplished the historian will grow in popular appreciation and there will be less disposition to subject history to attack in our schools and colleges.

HISTORY TEACHING AS PROPAGANDA IN DEALING WITH AFTER-WAR PROBLEMS—ITS USE AND ABUSE

Discussion by Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill,

Teachers College, New York City.

It often happens that the teacher is so much preoccupied with the problems of his own classroom that he unconsciously excludes from attention those life conditions and problems which should really be the basis of what he does in his profession. Our attitude on the question of history teaching as propaganda will, under existing circumstances, inevitably be influenced, if not determined, by our views and emotions concerning the situation in the world in general and America in particular at the present time. Certainly it is a critical period; unrest is profound and varied and world-wide in its scope. One cannot read the daily newspapers without a feeling of discomfort and uneasiness, for it all seems one long record of controversy and disturbance, of wars and rumors of wars, of strikes and lockouts, of starvation and revolution, and every kind of bitterness, suffering and conflict. One cannot escape moods of apprehension. All the greater then is the necessity for a cool examination of what is going on around us; a study in as scientific a spirit as we can command with an unflinching determination to resist the psychology of panic.

The danger of any form of violent social revolution in our country seems to me relatively very slight. We are suffering our share of the unrest and disorder incident to the readjustments that must follow all great wars, exceptional in this case because of the unexampled magnitude of the World War. Conditions are dangerous throughout Europe, and revolution has actually come in the central and eastern portions. In America the conditions are vastly different; we have endured far less strain and we are much less shaken. We have suffered comparatively slight loss of life, the country is rich and prosperous, the financial strength of the government is unimpaired, wages in general are

high, and we have no unemployment. The vast majority of our people are still personally interested in private property rights, and a majority still live in the small towns or in rural districts where we have no ignorant and oppressed peasantry hungry for the division of huge landed estates. Our industrial "proletariat" is not only confined to limited portions of the country for the most part, but the great majority of its members are affiliated, not with revolutionary or extremely radical groups, but with the comparatively conservative labor unions. There may be danger, if one so regards it, of the labor element acquiring too much strength and even becoming a dominant element for a time in American political life. But there is no real danger of a socialistic reconstruction and still less of communism certainly not through violence; against them the whole force of American tradition is arrayed, and all our mental habits are directed away from them. Deference to majority rule is an ingrained American attitude. If any danger of serious social disturbance exists at present, it is the danger of a reaction against the excessive zeal of those whose panic is leading them into an orgy of repression that runs counter to so much of the best of our traditional American principles.

The teacher of the social sciences has no more important duty at present than helping the country to get over the hysteria from which it is suffering. Active propaganda in the schoolroom in favor of the existing social order is as unnecessary as it is inappropriate. Indeed, such a policy is positively dangerous, for its inevitable tendency is to drag the schools into a partisan position on social and political questions, and clearly invites reprisals in any school system where a dangerously radical element may happen to gain control. Dr. Sullivan's apparent thesis that the "state" stands in an analogous position, so far as propaganda is concerned, to the church, or to the private donor in respect to educational institutions, will not stand a moment's examination if he really means what seems to be implied. The church as an institution existing for the sake of propaganda; the school or college founded by a private individual for the express purpose of teaching some chosen theory or system, is in a similar position. The state has no such purpose. It is merely a name for the people plus a political organization created and maintained to transact certain business which is necessary for the general good, and the people so organized embrace a vast variety of individuals

and groups representing every shade of opinion. There is no unanimous agreement as to exactly what the state should be, or do, or as to how its business can best be transacted; in a democratic state all these individuals and groups have an absolute right to hold their own opinions and to use their best efforts to modify political and social institutions.

In one respect, of course, the teacher has a fundamentally important duty with reference to the democratic state: to show the utter folly of attempting reform through violent revolution. Those great revolutions of the past which we justify were necessary and praiseworthy simply because there was no other method of bringing about fundamental reforms. In our own country we possess the political machinery for peaceable reform, and however clumsy and inadequate it may be in some aspects, the incidental cost of revolution in blood and suffering and property make it altogether preposterous as a remedy.

It follows then that in a democratic society such as ours, citizens have a right to advocate socialism, or even communism, provided they do so in an orderly and decent manner, and urge the changes by the same peaceable methods that would be used in favor of a protective tariff or social insurance. In the schoolroom, however, propaganda for all such specific changes is out of place, as it is out of place on all controversial questions—social, political, religious. Teachers who try to excite their pupils and make them strong partisans of this or that particular disputed theory or system, ought to be dismissed, not because of the opinions they hold, but because of their intemperance, extravagance, and bad taste. Precisely the same treatment should be meted out to them if they showed the same qualities in advocating a standpat conservatism. The violent, intemperate partisan is not fit to teach children at all.

The teacher, then, ought not to be a propagandist except on a very few fundamental matters about which agreement is general. For example, on the question of violent revolution. His duty rather is to treat the great number of controversial subjects in such a way as to show that most of them are difficult and require careful study. He should try to furnish an adequate equipment of facts, and ideals and capacity for cool and careful study. It is as foolish as it is unnecessary for him to make it the leading object of his civic instruction to turn the children into furious little anti-Bolshevists. Instead he should try to bring

out the complexity and difficulty of our social and political problems, to show that they cannot be settled by screaming and hysteria, that the "lessons" of history are differently read by different students and merely contribute facts and evidence for our assistance. In this way a propaganda can be carried on that is really worth-while and helpful in meeting the needs of our complex society in this trying time of unrest and readjustment.

General Discussion

Prof. E. P. Cheyney, of the University of Pennsylvania, expressed doubt of the wisdom of any effort to decide just what lessons are to be drawn from history and staked his belief that each teacher should be free to explain history as it seems to him to have been. For instance, he did not believe there was any agreement among historians on the points a previous speaker had treated as commonplaces or unquestioned truths. The facts of history are pretty clear, well ascertained and agreed upon, at least so far as they are likely to come up in school study. The "lessons of history" are not a settled body of doctrine like the principles of physics or chemistry. They are largely questions of personal opinion, and each person must be allowed to have his own opinion upon them and express it in his teaching. Freedom of thought and of teaching is much more valuable than any artificial or authoritative body of supposed "lessons of history." It is the duty of the teacher to teach the familiar facts of history and to interpret them as best he can according to his own thought and degree of enlightenment. The greatest value that comes from teaching and study of history is the effect on the mind of the pupil, broadening it and liberalizing it, not in providing it with any positive examples or warnings that can be used drectly in settling present day questions. Historical analogies are seldom close enough to be of any practical use as examples.

Patriotism is more likely to spring from the mere interested study of the history of our own country than from a direct effort to inculcate patriotic lessons. We love what we know about, the region where we were brought up, the books we read when we were young, the people we have known and known well. If American history is so taught as to make children in it, familiar with its incidents and characters, they will take pleasure in feeling themselves a part of it and then become patriotic Americans,

and, if other influences are favorable, good citizens. The best lessons are learned indirectly not directly.

Dr. R. W. Kelsey, of Haverford College, Pennsylvania:

It is undoubtedly true that there is undue alarm in some quarters owing to an exaggerated notion of the amount and probable effect of radical propaganda in the United States. On the other hand we must not go to the other extreme and close our eyes to some dangers that do exist. Revolutionary propaganda is not necessarily harmless because the revolutionaries are for the time being a small minority. The Bolsheviks of Russia were a decided minority of the whole country when they organized their revolution.

The real danger today lies, I believe, in certain false hopes that are being held out to labor. These hopes center in the idea that there is going to be a sudden and thoroughgoing revolution in economic life in the near future. One of my old favorite magazines calls it "a redistribution of industrial power." Another labels it "the democratization of all industry." It is the first stage of the syndicalist advice to the workingman: "There is the factory; you have paid for it ten times over by the profits you have earned for your masters; the factory is yours, go and take it."

The danger of this doctrine, even in its early stages, ought to be quite apparent. It gives a man the fatal impression that his future advancement in life is already earned. It is not to depend on present and future excellence, on indefatigable labor, on constant improvement. His success is already accumulated. It is in a pile somewhere, guarded by robber barons. One happy day he and his fellows are to rise up and seize it. Such a doctrine is enough to poison the mind and paralyze the hand of any of us.

It is all right to agitate in favor of a more equitable division of the surplus of industry in the future. It is quite proper to hold out to labor the hope of better pay and a fuller life in the coming days. It is even feasible to suggest that by the new processes of taxation and of more democratic industrial management there will ultimately come a more equal distribution of all wealth. But to prophesy, even by indirection, a new and sudden affluence, by appropriating the past savings of others, is a sure way to slow down the production of every laborer who comes to cherish the new hope.

For let it be remembered that accumulated wealth is always *savings*. It is generally referred to as profits, inordinate profits. Yet every great fortune is the result not merely of making money, but of saving it. In the beginning it always meant saving on a small scale. It involved self-denial. When Rockerfeller started his fortune there were millions of young men in the world getting more pay than he, but most of them never saved a dollar. In the meanwhile he economized, lived simply, went without things that other young chaps had,—and laid the foundations of a great fortune. This element of *saving* in accumulation is generally slighted, yet it is a prime requisite in any scheme of fortune-making, and the average wage-earner sorely needs to learn the process. (I occasionally stand beside our washwoman at the market and see her buy cuts of meat that I could not think of affording.)

What is the use, however, of saving money if tomorrow or next year you can share in all the savings of the past? How subtly must such a suggestion come to the non-saver? And to the man who does save, what incentive could there be to continue saving if some cataclysmic "redistribution of industrial power" were to place his store or his factory or his bank account on the dividing block in periodic occasions of democratic reapportionment?

The healthiest thought that ever entered a man's mind is that his economic destiny depends absolutely and alone upon his own efforts and excellence; upon his ability to do his allotted task better than somebody else does it, and better tomorrow than today. His next best thought is that his "fortune" of the future is going to come by his living today just a little bit inside the far end of his present pay envelope. That little margin of daily saving is the surest bag of gold that can be hung on the rainbow of the laboring man's hopes.

I have mentioned this subject merely as an illustration of the type of radical teaching that is now in the air. I feel that it constitutes a real danger to the individual and to society. We need not become hysterical about it. We ought not to try to stamp it out by ruthless and oppressive methods. That is a sure way to make it more widespread. We should meet it by a clear statement of the facts of history as we know them, and the arguments growing out of those facts that militate against such doctrines.

I recall hearing it said again and again in the years prior to 1914 that Germany would never dare to precipitate a general European war so long as England's navy was afloat; and indeed that the perfection of modern weapons of destruction would make a general war unthinkable to any and every great nation. Yet in due time the war came. I hope we may not make a similar miscalculation in underestimating the dangers of present day radicalism.

BUSINESS AND REPORTS, TRENTON AND PHILADELPHIA

ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY TEACHERS OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

Business Meeting, Trenton, N. J., May 10, 1919

The business meeting of the Association was called to order by the President, Dr. Schuyler, at 1 P.M. at the State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

On motion the reading of the minutes of the Annual Meeting of May 17, 1918, was dispensed with.

The President announced the appointment of the following temporary committees:

On the Treasurer's report: Professor R. W. Kelsey and Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill.

On Nominations: Miss Jessie C. Evans, Prof. Albert E. McKinley, and Dr. F. L. Packard.

On Resolutions: Dean Albert K. Heckel, Miss Bertha Bass, and Miss Cleora Sutch.

The Secretary reported for the Council the following recommendations:

First: That the Association pay the railroad fare of the secretary to and from the meetings of the Association.

Second: That the bibliography prepared some years ago by a committee composed of Professor Andrews, Dr. Gambrill and Miss Tall be revised, and that the work be in the hands of the committee that originally prepared the volume.

Third: That the meetings of the Association be given the widest publicity possible, and that an effort be made to get in touch with the young men in the profession and persuade them to join the Association.

Fourth: That those standing committees of the Association which are no longer functioning be discharged.

On motion, these recommendations were adopted by the Association. The secretary-treasurer's report was then read, ap-

proved, and ordered placed on file. The auditing committee—Professor R. W. Kelsey and Dr. Gambrill—reported that the accounts had been duly audited and approved. On motion this report was approved and ordered filed.

The Nominating Committee reported the following nominations:

For President: Daniel C. Knowlton.

Vice-President: Albert K. Heckel.

Secretary-Treasurer: Miss Florence M. Stryker.*

Additional Members of the Executive Council: Miss Sara Dynes and J. Montgomery Gambrill.

On motion the President was authorized to cast the vote of the Association in favor of the candidates named.

Professor Schuyler, for the Committee on Hispanic-American History, stated that the report was now in print in the Year Book of 1918, and moved that the committee be dismissed. Motion carried.

A vote of thanks to the retiring officers was then moved and carried.

The Committee on Resolutions then made the following report:

Resolved, That the Association express to the speakers its appreciation of the scholarly, illuminating and stimulating presentation of the topics assigned to them: also

Resolved, That the Association extend its hearty thanks to the local committee on arrangements for their careful planning for the comfort and entertainment of their guests; and further

Resolved, That the Association express its gratitude to the Trenton State Normal School for its generous hospitality.

On motion, these resolutions were adopted and a copy was directed to be sent to the Trenton Normal School.

Dr. McKinley moved that an appropriation of $200 be made to the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools to further its work. He said that he had received a communication from Mr. W. G. Leland of the American Historical Association asking that the matter be presented at the business meeting of the Association. Dr. McKinley's motion was amended and the amount was reduced to $100, giving the Council authority to increase the appropriation if they should deem it necessary.

* As Miss Stryker found it impossible to serve, R. W. Kelsey, of Haverford College, consented to act as Secretary-Treasurer *pro tem.* (1919–1920).

Dr. D. C. Knowlton reported on behalf of the committee which was appointed by the president to report on a proposed federation of history teachers: that the idea had met with a favorable reception throughout the country. On motion the new president was authorized to appoint a committee of three to go on with the work and make plans for such a federation.

On motion adjourned.

(Signed) Daniel C. Knowlton,
Sec'y-Treasurer.

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR YEAR ENDING MAY 10, 1919

Receipts

From L. R. Schuyler, Treas.	$460.69
The Dues and Sale of Yearbooks	295.40
From Adolph Lewisohn, printing Address of Professor Harding	25.00
From Royalties on Bibliography	7.68
Interests on deposits	3.29
Total Receipts	$792.06

Disbursements

Expenses of Spring Meeting:	
Expenses of Speaker	$ 20.00
Stenographer	5.00
Letter heads, Warren Press	5.00
Expenses Fall Meeting, 1918:	
Envelopes and stamps	12.93
Printing E. Madison Co.	1.50
Stenographer	9.55
Printing Booklets, Address by Prof. Hardign	25.51
Stamped Envelopes and Postage	26.40
Clerical Services	7.25
Expenses, Spring Meeting, 1918:	
Postage	16.37
Printing, Programs, etc.	23.50
Expenses, Speakers, Clerical Help	33.00
Bill, Warren Press, Circular Letters, etc.	17.25
Bill, L. R. Schuyler, Postage, Clerical Help, etc.	41.00
Deduction of Check, credited twice	1.00
Total Disbursements	$245.26
Receipts	$792.06
Disbursements	$245.26
Balance on hand	$546.80

D. C. Knowlton,
Treasurer.

Audited and found correct May 10, 1919,—R. W. Kelsey.

COUNCIL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY TEACHERS OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

HELD AT HOUSTON HALL, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, NOVEMBER 29, 1919, AT 9 A.M.

Dr. D. C. Knowlton, President of the Association, presiding.

Members present: Herman V. Ames, James Sullivan, Albert E. McKinley, Jessie C. Evans, Albert K. Heckel, and J. Montgomery Gambrill.

Several members of the Council emphasized the need of securing a Secretary-Treasurer to serve for several years, in order to secure continuity in carrying forward the business of the Association. Some were in favor of paying a small salary, if necessary, for such services.

It was moved and carried that the Chairman appoint a committee of three to nominate officers to the spring meeting, with especial attention to the office of Secretary-Treasurer.

Dr. J. M. Gambrill reported that Ginn and Co. were prepared to publish the proposed new edition of the Bibliography of History. It was moved and carried that Dr. Gambrill be instructed to go forward with the editing and publication of the book in accordance with the terms outlined in his letter of September 30, 1919, to Dr. D. C. Knowlton, which letter is attached to these minutes.

Dean Albert K. Heckel, on behalf of Lafayette College, invited the Association to hold its next spring meeting at Easton, Pa. It was voted that the invitation be accepted and the meeting held at Easton, May 7–8, 1920.

The Council then adjourned.

R. W. KELSEY,
Secretary for the day.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. *Name and Purpose*

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be two-fold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. *Membership*

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. *Officers*

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), and a council, consisting of the foregoing officers, two members elected by the Association, the ex-presidents of the Association, and one delegate from each local conference recognized by the Association. These officers, except the delegates and ex-presidents, shall be elected by ballot at each regular Spring meeting of the Association. In the Council shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Assocation.

Article IV. *Meetings*

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at the time and place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. *Annual Dues*

The membership fee shall be $1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. *Amendments*

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given at the call for the meeting.

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OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

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